LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Workshop for Training in Administrative Management

TRAINING IN
ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

T A M

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Salem, Oregon . . . . . January 25-29, 1960

FORWORD

The ever-growing complexity of governmental administration -- both Federal and State -- places a premium on effective administrative management. Most of us are technicians by education and experience. Most of us have of recent years experienced the added burden of management responsibilities. There is a need for us to pause and take stock. Are we getting results as managers? If not, how can we become better managers?

The TAM workshop is designed to give us some answers. We have here a cross-section of men skilled in the profession of management, thinkers on the basic theories, practitioners of the applied skills. We cannot help but profit from a week of participation in this workshop with such able guides

This report is intended as a working tool, a ready reference, a mind refresher, a strong stimulus, to each of us in the months to come. Each of us has a heavy workload. Each can lighten his load and increase his effectiveness by practicing the modern science of administrative management. Let's be at it.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The workshop participants wish to express sincere appreciation to :

The following steering committee designated by the USDA Executives Club for their excellent planning and organization for the workshop;

Robert L. Brown, SCS, Portland, Chairman
Jean W. Scheel, Ext. Service, Corvallis
Luther B. Burkett, FS, Portland
Lewis C. Van Winkle, ASC, Portland
Ray Hile, AMS, Portland
Walter Cline, CSS, Portland

The workshop manager, Robert Brown, and director, Jean Scheel, to these two our special thanks for the excellent job they did in the actual conduct of the workshop.

The staff of the Marion ASC County Office for their yeoman duty in producing this report.

All the program speakers for their able and informative presentations and helpful discussion sessions.

The State of Oregon for excellent accomodations furnished for us in the Capitol Building.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

WHAT IS "TAM"?

The United States Department of Agriculture conducts a program of Training in Administrative Management (TAM) under the direction of a Management Improvement Committee, established by the Secretary of Agriculture in 1957. Two major types of activities are involved:

(1) TAM Leadership Institutes on a regional basis, and

(2) TAM Workshops within individual states.

Personnel who participate in the regional Institutes in turn take part in planning and conduction the Workshops to extend training to others. The overall purpose of the program is to help improve management.

TAM Workshop is designed to develop outstanding employees, possessing administrative and executive ability in the broader phases of administrative management. Participants in the workshops are a selected group of employees nominated by the agencies in which they are employed. In the workshop, they will have opportunity to discuss current management theory, problems, and practices with select field managers from other agencies and with leaders from colleges, industry, and government. Through this experience, the participants further develop the management attitudes, skills and abilities they presently possess, and also gain a broader understanding of the Department's agencies, programs and activities.

The TAM Workshop to be held in Salem, Oregon, January 25-29, 1960 is being sponsored by the USDA Executives Club of Portland and is the second such workshop sponsored by that group. The committee set up to plan this event includes four men who took part in a regional TAM Institute during the past year. Major responsibilities in the operation of the workshop will be handled by the participants themselves.

PROGRAM

TAM WORKSHOP
STATE CAPITOL, ROOM 6
SALEM, OREGON
January 25 - 29, 1960

JANUARY 25

8:30 A.M.

Presiding Officer -- R. M. Alexander
Exp. Station, Corvallis
Discussion Leader -- Mel Suchy
FS, Portland

Welcome -- Robert L. Brown, SCS, Portland

Purposes and Objectives -- J. W. Scheel, Ext., Corvallis

What Is Management? -- Dr. George Shipman, Institute of Public Administration, University of Washington, Seattle

Summarizers: Raymond J. Boyd, SCS, Portland
Darryl E. Storm, SBF, Salem

1:15 P.M.

Presiding Officer -- Theodore W. Dunwoodie
ASC, Portland
Discussion Leader -- Gene Lear
Ext., Corvallis

USDA Philosophy -- C. Carlile Carlson, USDA General Counsel, Portland

What the Group Expects to Get from the Week -- J. W. Scheel, Ext., Corvallis

Summarizers: Carl H. Johnson, CSS, Portland
Norman D. Kimball, ARS, Corvallis

ADJOURNMENT

Meeting of Advisory Steering Committee with Robert L. Brown

Meeting of Editorial Committee with J. W. Scheel

Meeting of Library Committee with Lewis C. Van Winkle

EVENING

Meeting of Session Chairmen and Discussion Leaders with Luther Burkett

Meeting of Summarizers with Chairman of Editorial Committee

JANUARY 26

8:00 A.M.

Presiding Officer -- Raymond C. Riley
AMS, Portland
Discussion Leader -- Jesse B. Hathhorn
SCS, Cottage Grove

Agency Explanations

Extension Service

Commodity Stabilization Service

Social Action -- E. J. Kreizinger, Washington State University, Pullman

Summarizers: C. L. Smith, Ext., Corvallis
Robert M. Beeman, FS, Portland

1:15 P.M.

Presiding Officer -- Ronald B. Elmes
SCS, Portland
Discussion Leader -- Curtis Weedman
Ext., Corvallis

The Corrective Interview -- Chandler Stevens, Oregon State Department of Employment, Salem

Motivation -- Vernon H. Osborn, Oregon Liquor Control Commission, Portland

Critique on Method -- Luther B. Burkett, FS, Portland

Summarizers: Philip Bauder, ASC, McMinnville
John V. Woodbury, CSS, Portland

JANUARY 27

8:00 A.M.

Presiding Officer -- John H. Savage
AMS, Portland
Discussion Leader -- W. G. Nibler
Ext., Corvallis

Agency Explanations

State Board of Forestry

Forest Service

Forest and Range Experiment Station

Agricultural Marketing Service

Administrative Leadership -- John M. Young, Director
11th Civil Service District, Seattle

Summarizers: Frank Belmont, AMS, Portland
R. F. Alexander, Ag. Exp. Station
Corvallis

1:15 P.M.

Presiding Officer -- Denver P. McComb
SBF, Salem
Discussion Leader -- Francis Newkirk
ASC, Portland

The Human Relations Side of Administration --
Howard Arnett, Vice President,
Portland General Electric Company

Summarizers: Theodore W. Thorson, SCS, Redmond
Lena M. Higgins, CSS, Portland

JANUARY 28

8:00 A.M. Presiding Officer -- Robert F. Tarrant
Forest Exp. Station, Portland
Discussion Leader -- C. L. Vandebrake
CSS, Portland

Agency Explanations

Soil Conservation Service

State Department of Agriculture

Agricultural Experiment Station

OSC School of Agriculture

Harvard Case Studies Demonstration -- Rolla Reedy
U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Portland
Dr. Milton Davis, General Extension
Division, Portland

Summarizers: Cal Monroe, Ext., Corvallis
Edgar F. Baumann, SCS, Pendleton

1:15 P.M.

Presiding Officer -- Leo M. Boire
AMS, Salem

Discussion Leader -- Justin G. Smith
Forest Exp. Station, Wenatchee, Washington

Communications -- Dr. William Pemberton, Consulting Psychologist, San Francisco

Summarizers: Wilbur T. Cooney, OSC School of Agriculture, Corvallis
Henry M. Matschiner, State Department of Agriculture, Salem

JANUARY 29

8:00 A.M.

Presiding Officer -- Kenneth Carl
State Department of Agriculture, Salem
Discussion Leader -- L. A. Waggener
FS, Portland

Agency Explanation

Agricultural Research Service

Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation

Management for Tomorrow -- Dean W. F. McCulloch
OSC School of Forestry, Corvallis

Summarizers: Raymond C. Riley, AMS, Portland
Charles L. Gibb, CSS, Portland

1:15 P.M.

Presiding Officer -- E. H. Marshall
FS, Portland

Broader Understanding of the USDA and the Job Ahead -- Dr. E. R. Draheim, Assistant to Director of Personnel, USDA, Washington, D.C.

Evaluation -- Luther Burkett, FS, Portland

Summarizers: Gene Lear, Ext., Corvallis
Theodore W. Dunwoodie, ASC, Portland

WELCOME TO TAM

By Robert L. Brown, Chairman of Planning Group

I consider it a privilege and a pleasure to welcome each one of you to this TAM Workshop - TAM is short for Training in Administrative Management.

We feel privileged that we are able to hold this workshop in our Capitol City of Salem and especially in being able to utilize the facilities of our Capitol building. The decision to hold this workshop in Salem was based on several considerations - the greatest besides quality of facilities was the fact that most of you would in this way be taken from your offices and would devote your undivided attention to TAM. This is necessary as you will undoubtedly find out as the week progresses.

My distinct pleasure this morning comes in welcoming those of you representing State Agencies. This is the first workshop in which this has happened. TAM has been, until this workshop, a USDA administrative training vehicle. We are pleased to have you participating, since we work together throughout the rest of the year.

Some of you may wonder how you happened to be the individual selected to participate, since you were not necessarily the top administrator in your agency. You are though, a top technician with keen administrative ability or your boss would not have selected you to participate here. Remember this is a Training Workshop.

You were selected by your own agencies, so thank them for this privilege. I'm sure you will consider it this, as you study the program for the week and have the opportunity to discuss with these key people in their specialties, the problems that confront you.

Those of us who had the opportunity to develop this workshop, thoroughly enjoyed our opportunity to participate in TAM last winter, starting just a year ago today.

Welcome to TAM! Undoubtedly you will have a few problems this week. If there is anything those of us on your staff can do to help you, call on us. Gene and I will be here all week - Lew, Ray and Van will be here part of the time.

"WHAT IS MANAGEMENT?"

By Dr. George Shipman

Education: Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut, B.A., M.A.; Cornell University, Ph.D.

Professional Positions: Assistant in History, Wesleyan University, 1925-1926; Fellow in American History, Cornell University, 1926-1927; Instructor in Government, Cornell University, 1927-1930; Assistant Professor of Political Science, Bureau of Government Research, West Virginia University, 1935-1939; Research Associate, Princeton Local Government Survey, 1936-1938; Associate Professor of Political Science, Duke University, 1938-1946; Office of Price Administration, Regional Price Coordinator, 1942, Director of Training, 1942-1943; Division of Administrative Management, Bureau of the Budget, 1943-1946; Lecturer in Public Administration, American University 1943-1946; Professor of Public Administration, University of Washington since 1946; Director, Institute of Public Affairs since 1948. Visiting Professor of Public Administration, Graduate School of Business and Public Administration, Cornell University Autumn, 1959.

Consultative and Research Activities: Consulting and research staff, West Virginia State Government, 1933-1940; Consultant, Washington State Legislative Council, 1948-1953; Consultant in administration, various Federal agencies since 1950; Member, Committee on Organization, Washington State Government, 1951-1955; Technical Director, Pacific Northwest Assembly on State Government, 1956; Consultant, Washington State Tax Advisory Council, 1957; Member, Governor's Committee on the State Budget and Accounting System, 1957.

Currently responsible for the administration of a graduate program to prepare students for professional careers in the public service, and of research projects in administration.

SUMMARY

To most of us who are in background training and experience program specialists, the terms administration and management are likely to refer to some set of controls, restrictions, strait-jacketing ways of doing business that add little to the effectiveness of getting the program job done. In fact, many of us are inclined to regard these matters as obstacles to be overcome -- or at best nuisances to be tolerated.

The program specialist tends to think of the administrative role as something of lower prestige and significance than his professional capacity in program operations. He rarely thinks of the administrator as a professional person in his own right. Yet increasingly, the administrator is being regarded as a professional person and administration as a profession. This is so because an increasing body of systematic knowledge is being accumulated which provides an emerging base of discipline for the practice of administration.

Administration as a discipline undertakes to assure an effective expression of the program goal by a wise and skillful blending together of all available resources -- human, physical, financial, technological. There is much more to the idea than this. However, at this state a bit of perspective may be in order.

At the outset let us notice that the terms administration and management are linked together in the name of this conference.

Comment -- Upon administration as a process of action, management as the utilization of various methods, attitudes, and skills to assure that the process will be effective, management is an essential function or part of administration.

Thinking about administration has undergone sweeping changes in recent years -- may be desirable to put some of this in its historical setting.

Stages

1. The middle 1930's -- the highpoint of "orthodoxy" -- the mechanical analogy --
   The central ideas were these:
   Organization -- division of work, coordination of work
   the use of the pyramid of organization
   the span of control
   notions of delegations
   centralization of responsibility

   Use of this machine was effected by:
   1. delegation of specific responsibility
   2. use of coordinating mechanisms -- staff controls, etc.
   3. budgeting
   4. personnel administration
   5. controls on use of material, etc.

   This approach had many advantages and values -- helped to bring about a disciplined, systematic approach to the concerns it touched -- But also serious weaknesses --

1. Seemed to assume that if all the formal criteria of sound organization and management were met -- The program was bound to be effective. A completely internal one-sided test.
2. Overlooked the point that human beings cannot be understood and treated as cogs in a machine.
   - Subordination -- opportunity to express originality, etc. --
   Individuality -- treated as constants in the formula.
3. Failed to take into account to wider context in which American administration functions.

2. The dominant administrative leader -- late 1930's, early 1940's -- an element of charisma -- mystical influence of inspirational leadership. -- This school of thought was recognizing in a way, that the orthodox theory did not produce the human responses necessary for the realization of the program goals -- inspiration was needed -- an inspiring leader could supply it -- so went the theory.

3. The human relations approach --
Explain -- first realization that administration is a social process -- inherent conflicts, etc. -- aimed at the mobilization and liberation of human loyalities, capacities and enthusiasms toward attainment of shared goals -- the exercise of management must meet the basic human needs of the people in the organization.

4. Relativis m -- interrelationship of many interacting influences --
Administration is a social process -- the organization is a social organism -- the organic analogy -- the projection of social research to the organization as a social focus has yielded fresh insights. Administration as a stream of behaviors, management as the influencing of interacting individual and group behaviors toward the identification and expression of the goals sought by the public.

How do we see administration today?
It is the formation and expression values of policy.
In the governmental setting these values are public policy.
It is a social process --
explain the idea --
involving human group
in --
out --
interactions --
Characterized by value-seeking drives -- interaction patterns responding to learned stimuli.

The techniques of management become means enabling these behavior patterns to find a high level of practical expression -- in producing practical results.

Management, in current thinking, is the guidance and influencing of the behavior patterns of the administrative group so that:

Individual members of the organization are contributing at a high level of skill, initiative, and enthusiasm -- as healthy self-expressions of the people they want to be.

The interactions among members of the organization are stimulating and competitive in a healthy way -- destructive conflict does not result. Rivalry is healthy.

The interrelationship's among groups in the organization are characterized by positive drives toward well understood and respected goals. There is competition and rivalry -- but drives do not become introverted so that energy is exhusted in fighting and other forms of unproductive conflict.

The techniques of management -- personnel administration, budgeting, supply administration and the like are:

1. The channels whereby resources are mobilized and applied to reinforce productive group effort.
2. The means by which needed structure and well understood relationships are brought to what might otherwise be random, undisciplined, uncoordinated human efforts.
3. The channels and the criteria whereby conflict and difficulty are resolved -- we hope by the application of accumulated wisdom and intelligence, rather than by guesswork or prejudice.

To the administrator we say --

Administration is a flow of interrelated, interacting human and group behaviors within and without the agency -- value seeking --

The administrator's special responsibility is to see clearly and realistically the <u>goals</u> to which these behaviors must aspire, and to guide healthy self expression toward them.

The techniques of management are some of his tools or means to this end. Using them skillfully and intelligently will contribute strength and effectiveness to group effort. <u>But</u>, they are not and cannot be ends in themselves!

The attitude question is -- how can the human capacities of this group or set of groups be released most effectively toward the realization of the satisfactions sought for the public interest

-- satisfactions of the individuals (personal)
-- satisfactions of the groups (identifications)
-- satisfactions of the groups in the body (politic)

DISCUSSION

Q: The question was raised regarding the line and staff approach to organization and its benefits and use of identification of individual responsibilities.

A: Dr. Shipman agreed that this type of organization is more easily understood, but where failure in achievement results, is this understanding and identification really important?

Q: If goals are established working level, what part does top level administration play in the adoption of such goals?

A: Goals themselves are formed internally, arising out of environments, influences and pressures. Top level administration supplies goals in the sense of overall public interest.

Q: Are goals and objectives the same?

A: Goals and objectives differ in that goals represent expressions of values.

Q: How do you measure success in administration? Isn't the fact that an agency survives, testimony to its success?

A: By and large to some degree this is a measurement of success. A better test might be the answer to the question, "What role have we achieved in the total contribution to society and in addition, to what extent are we called upon to develop, create and produce for society? Or do we just go along and somehow survive?"

Q: Can an individual be a good administrator without first having been a technician in his field?

A: In his response to this question, Dr. Shipman pointed out that training in administrative management could best be accomplished at the mid-career level and that our educational system is now recognizing this need and is establishing appropriate programs. Only limited administrative training can be absorbed by the recent graduate.

In answer to a question regarding dual professionalism and the problem of administration by specialists, Dr. Shipman expressed concern over the possibility of the loss of productivity in coordination of individual specialized efforts. A better system might include administration by a "generalist" at the operating level.

In his closing remarks, Dr. Shipman stated that the education of its "publics" is a primary responsibility of every public agency. There is great need for understanding of what is feasible and what is not; what is possible and what is not. The public must be educated in the realm of practicability.

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Leys, Ethics for Policy Decisions

Metcalf and Urwick, (ed.), Dynamic Administration

Selznick, Leadership in Administration

Simon, Administrative Behavior

Ordway Tead, The Art of Administration. (McGraw-Hill, 1951.)

Waldo, Study of Public Administration

USDA PHILOSOPHY

By C. Carlile Carlson

Native of Utah; attended University of Utah where he received a B.S. degree in 1929; received L.L.B. degree in 1932 from Harvard.

In private practice of law in Portland, Oregon until May, 1942, at which time he enlisted in the U.S. Navy where he remained until December, 1945. While serving in the Navy he had 14 months duty as Lieutenant Commander, Amphibious Forces, S. W. Pacific, was decorated for action in combat, and also received a commendation. Presently holds an active commission as Captain in the Ready Reserve of the Navy.

Joined the U. S. Department of Agriculture in February, 1948, as Attorney in Charge of Office of the General Counsel, Portland, Oregon. Presently is Regional Attorney of the Office of the General Counsel in Portland, Oregon with Branch Office at Missoula, Montana. His jurisdiction covers Oregon, Washington, Montana, Alaska and Idaho for some programs.

SUMMARY

One of the most important aspects of any discussion is the definition of terms. This may be ruthless and difficult but once it is done, half the task is accomplished. With this in mind it is well to attempt to define the term, "philosophy", as used in the subject of this talk. For purposes of our discussion it can be defined as a "body of principles" or "practical wisdom." In a very broad sense it might even be synonymous with objective.

Within the framework of this broad definition it can be stated that the philosophy (objective) of the USDA is determined by Congress and those in policy-making positions and it should be our purpose as Managers to carry out the will of Congress and those designated to establish policy. It would seem that the principal "OBJECTIVE", as shown in the various acts of Congress, including the Organic Act creating the Department in 1862, can be summarized in one word, "SERVICE". This is emphasized by the use of the term, "SERVICE", in connection with the names of the great majority of the agencies in the Department, i.e., Forest Service, Soil Conservation Service, Agricultural Marketing Service, Foreign Agricultural Service, Commodity Stabilization Service, etc.

Official publications of the Department list the "activities" of the USDA as Research, Education, Information, Marketing, Conservation,

Stabilization and Credit. It is interesting to note how these fit into our objective of "SERVICE".

S - STABILIZATION

E - EDUCATION

R - RESEARCH

V - VISION

I - INFORMATION

C - CONSERVATION & CREDIT

E - ECONOMY (MARKETING)
and
ENFORCEMENT

Some of the agencies, of course, are purely administrative, such as Personnel, Plant & Operations, etc., but even in these instances "SERVICE" in the final analysis is an important objective.

This all-important "SERVICE" is rendered in the broad sense to the GENERAL PUBLIC and specifically to the FARMER. In determining how this objective of rendering service can be accomplished, LEADERSHIP (administration, management, or whatever you wish to call it) is fundamental and basic. One of the principal purposes of this TAM is to train and develop LEADERS (Managers and Administrators).

The most important part of any organization is the "LEADER". This is a world of law and order. Leadership can be determined on this basis; it, too, is governed by law. Since it, too, is governed by certain laws, in developing leadership, we can follow a formula pretty much the same as in any other area where law governs. It has been stated that one FORMULA for successful LEADERSHIP is the "P" FORMULA. P x P x P x P x P = PP. Personality x Planning x Preparation x Persistence x Presentation x Perspiration = Perfect Performance. The importance of each of the elements in the formula was discussed briefly, with particular emphasis on personality and its great importance in the development and accomplishments of a leader.

To achieve and carry out the philosophy (objective) of the Department, i.e., "SERVICE", as given by Congress and our policy leaders we should work together as LEADERS.

DISCUSSION

A general discussion followed covering various aspects affecting philosophy of USDA and its agencies.

*SOCIAL ACTION

By E. J. Kreizinger

Education: Bachelor of Science degree in Agriculture, University of Nebraska, Master of Science degree in Agriculture, Kansas State College, one year of work on Ph.D. degree at the University of Nebraska.

Positions: Four years' teaching and coaching in high schools of Nebraska, Six years in research and teaching, Agronomy Department, Washington State University, and U. S. Department of Agriculture, Division of Forage Crops and Diseases, A year and a half with the Washington Co-op Farmers Association in the area of seed production, Thirteen years in Extension at Washington State University, presently State Leader of Research and Training. Also, part-time in the College of Agriculture as Professor of Agriculture.

SUMMARY

As we study Social Action programs we see they follow a certain pattern down through the action stages. Of course the proper application must be made for each situation.

To understand Social Action, we must be able to see the important parts of the over-all social system as we move from step to step in action initiation.

To start a program at the wrong stage or not to understand our part can lead to failure and inefficiency.

The following steps or phases must be considered in any Social Action Program:

1. The Social System

   a. All Social Action takes place within an existing social system. This may be the State, County, Community, Church, etc.
   b. We must have a general understanding of the social system to know what parts are important to our own social action program.

2. The Prior Social Situation

a. For every given social action there must exist some past experience in the social system which relates to the kind of Social Action now under consideration. We should determine the actual existing experience or prior experience relating to the proposed Social Action Program.

3. Problem (Based on a situation within the social system)

a. Social Action usually has its start by two or more people agreeing that some kind of problem or situation exists and that something should be done.
b. Action may be started by people inside social system, by someone with inside-outside interests such as an extension worker or an outsider such as a specialist.
c. Interests for initiating action may be common (farmers wanting soil testing facilities) or complementary (farmers want way to test soil and fertilizer dealer wants soil tests to help sell fertilizer).

4. The Initiating Sets

a. There must be sufficient agreement on the need by other people than the Social Action originators. These people who feel something should be done about the problem are the Initiating Sets.
b. The initiating set consists of two or more people, usually not more than four or five people.
c. More than one initiating set may be involved. They add ideas, alternatives and actually originate action on the idea or program.

5. The Legitimation State

a. In almost every community, or social system, there are certain people or groups, that seem to have the right authority and prerogative to pass on things to make them legitimate ideas. These people are called "legitimizers". They put a stamp of approval upon the idea.
b. The initiating set usually takes the problem to the legitimizers. To by-pass this group usually spells failure.
c. Legitimizers may be -

(1) Formal administrators, church, clubs, etc.
(2) Informal, certain individuals or cliques.

d. A legitimizer may have power because of money, family, prestige, key position, knowledge, past correct judgments.

e. A legitimizer may heartily endorse, say maybe, yes, no nothing, you may use my name, won't oppose, etc.
f. If you by-pass a legitimizer his position is challenged. At times the legitimizers may actually have to be by-passed if it is felt the program really merits action. This should be done with the consequences in mind.

6. The Diffusion Stage

a. After an idea has been legitimized, it is ready to be moved to the diffusion stage.
b. At the start of this stage only the idea originators, 4 or 5 initiators and the legitimizers have heard of the idea.
c. At this stage we are ready to determine if the general public or the people who feel the need of such action will define it as a need.
d. The diffusion stage takes the program to the public. In each case careful evaluation should be made to see who does this.
e. Quite often the idea originators make very poor diffusers.

7. Definition of Need

a. Once the diffusion set is established we try to make the problem become the people's problem. A number of techniques that can be used to get large numbers of people to see a problem and identify it as one of their problems too - Use

(1) Basic Education -- This is a long range program. It does get the facts to the people.
(2) Program Development Committees -- certain key people in the community study situation, problems, resources, etc. By this method people begin to see a need.
(3) Comparison and Competition -- use approach such as "our community or our farm is not as good as someone elses". "People are going to another town because they have a swimming pool".
(4) Exploiting Crisis -- When a crisis arises make a play on certain needs. Example - a flood may promote a flood control program.
(5) Demonstration or Trial -- Set up a demonstration to show how improvement can be made. Create a need by comparison.
(6) Building on Past Experiences -- (Ex. -- we now use fertilizer, let's test soil and use fertilizer "efficiently".)
(7) Channeling Gripes -- If people are against something, their negativeness can be transferred into being for something. Example - everyone is against undulant fever, so would be for control of Bangs disease.

8. Commitments to Action

a. Besides getting a definition of need from people, we must also get a commitment to do something. This may be -- agreement to attend meetings; to act at proper time; to pledge money; to take part in program; vote of confidence. A commitment to action is one of the important steps in the social action process.

9. What We Want to Achieve

a. Once a felt need is established, out of it must come some definite targets, goals or objectives. Some of the people must be willing to try. Whatever we try must be spelled out in:

(1) Good criteria for goals.
(2) Content of goals.
(3) Human behavior changes we wish to bring about.

10. Explore Alternative Methods or Means

a. Usually we have more trouble agreeing on how we are going to do something than we do on what we are actually trying to do.
b. All alternatives or different ways of doing the job should be considered.
c. After considering all alternatives arrive at the best present alternative and proceed to set up the plan of action.

11. Set Up the Plan of Action

a. After we have set up our goals and objectives and have decided on the basic methods we should use, then we will want to set up a plan of action -- a program with the organizational structure to carry it out.
b. In the plan of action such things should be considered as --

(1) A time schedule
(2) Committee set-ups
(3) Kinds of personnel needed
(4) Buildings required
(5) Visual aids or other methods
(6) Needs for meetings
(7) Publicity

12. Mobilizing and Organizing Resources

a. Once we have laid down our plan of action, then we must mobilize and organize our resources so the plan can be carried out. Once we have the plan on paper we must find --

(1) The time
(2) The people
(3) The resources
(4) The physical facilities
(5) Whatever else is needed to actually carry the plan into action

b. People who take part in plan --

(1) Have agreed on the need, goals, objectives, methods and plan of action
(2) Must be mobilized and organized

13. Launching the Program

a. As we move into gear in terms of Social Action, some programs basically break down into sort of a launching process. This launching might take the form of --

(1) A fund drive
(2) A series of tours
(3) A big kick-off dinner
(4) A big full page ad-campaign
(5) A telephone network call
(6) A big publicity splurge

b. The purpose of a launching program is to make a big event so that people will know we now are into the action stages of the program.
c. Some programs move slowly because of their nature. Your plan of action must take this into consideration.

14. Carry out Program

a. This consists of the various action steps necessary to carry the program forward.

15. Continuing and Final Evaluation

a. Between each of the action steps as at all the places along the social action scale, we stop and evaluate. We evaluate what we have done; our next immediate goal; alternative methods for reaching that goal.
b. Make the next move in light of this evaluation.
c. Final or total program evaluation.

(1) Did we accomplish what we set out to do?
(2) Were the methods good?
(3) Did we make good use of resources?
(4) Why was the program successful?
(5) Or why did it fail?

(6) How would we plan differently if we were to do it over again?
(7) What did we learn?
(8) Where do we go from here?

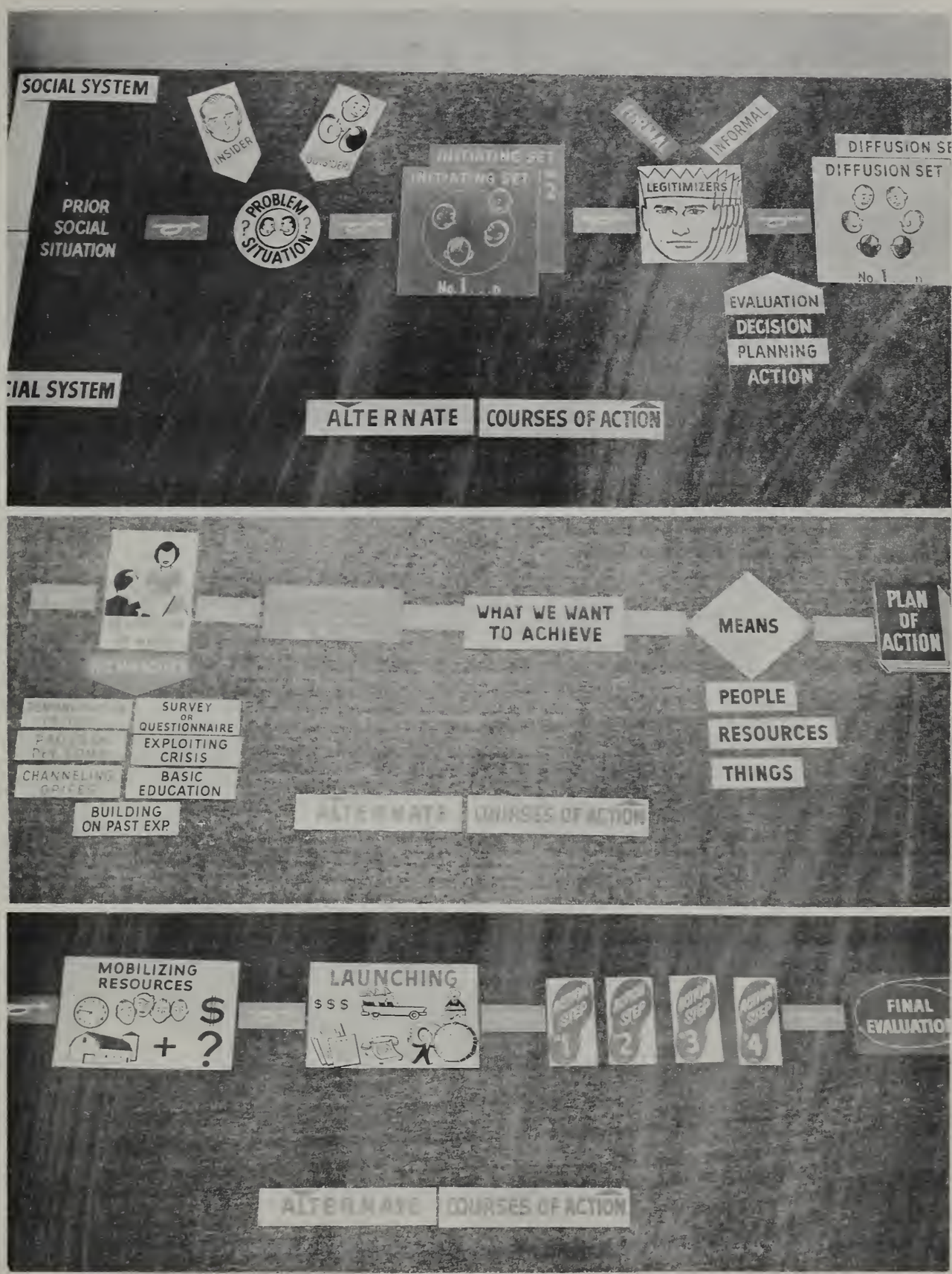
Circular arrow stands for

(1) Evaluation
Decision
Planning, Action
(2) A constant process
Did we get the job done?
How well did we do it?
What next?
Why successful?
Why failure?
(3) Evaluate at every step.

* Reproduction of CTP Material as Presented by Doctors Bohlen & Beale Iowa State College.

CONSTRUCT FOR SOCIAL ACTION

Read from left to right



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THE CORRECTIVE INTERVIEW

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SUMMARY

Every supervisor has occasion to correct an employee. To correct an individual in a way that will genuinely improve his work, and at the same time strengthen your rapport with him, is not only difficult but downright challenging.

So often, our hastily contrived "correction talk" fails so utterly in meeting this challenge, if it is permitted to deteriorate into a verbal battle of senseless bickering and argument. Or, perhaps dreading the whole affair, we hurry through the process, making it abrupt and final, closing our ears to explanation and reason. Such interviews tend only to balloon the problem out of proper proportion, while creating ill-feelings, embarrassment, defensiveness, resentment and frustration. Instead of building, we are destroying.

Certainly, the obvious purpose of a corrective interview is to point out the error, correct it, and decide how to prevent it in the future. But, in addition, it is a chance for some good on-the-job training, assisting the employee to grow and develop. It can be an opportunity to further create and strengthen strong job relationships.

In preparing for the interview and conducting it, there are a number of things the supervisor can do that will boost his chances for success.

GET THE FACTS

To begin with, the oft-repeated "get the facts" is as important and appropriate here as in any other human relations situation. Unless you actually find out what has happened, you will be forced to rely on inference and assumption alone. Both can be exceedingly unreliable. Both can lead to the wrong conclusion.

To assume that the employee's error automatically reflects a certain personal fault or inability on his part is jumping to conclusions. Might there not be other possibilities? Perhaps the employee didn't know what was expected of him. Possibly he misunderstood your instructions (which may indicate a poorly made assignment on your part). He could have been confused by other co-workers advising how to do the job. The hindrance of physical ailments or the pressure of personal worries may have contributed to his mistake.

There can be any number of factors other than personal inadequacy that may cause a person to make a mistake. Look for them. Guard against supposition. Begin the interview acting on fact, not assumption.

CHOOSE THE RIGHT TIME AND PLACE

Poor choice of time or place can minimize the effectiveness of any corrective interview.

Unfortunately, there is no magic formula that will produce the right time and place for such a talk. In determining this, you must rely on your own good judgment. You must consider two things: "Is it the right time and place for the employee? Is it the right time and place for me?"

Insofar as the employee is concerned, the interview should be prompt and cover a current event-not something that is past history. Tardy correction lacks "punch," and serves only dubious purpose, while opening the supervisor to the charge of nagging or "picking on" the subordinate.

Certainly the employee should be protected as much as possible from undue embarrassment. Correction in front of others may cause such embarrassment. This deflating experience can seriously damage not only his relationship with his supervisor, but also his relationship with his co-workers. Feeling ill at ease with his fellows can hinder both his and the group's performing at top efficiency.

A private talk would ease this situation. However, a curt, bristling "step into the office" can be devastating, making the error appear monstrous and of much greater seriousness than it really may be. Such magnification and distortion will quickly block

channels of communication and invite a buildup of employee resistance and defensiveness.

The right time and place for the supervisor should be only when he has had opportunity (if needed) to cool off, and to properly analyze the situation confronting him. Then follows careful planning as to interview format--what to say and how best to say it. Proper scheduling will allow ample time to conduct a friendly, unhurried discussion.

CORRECT RATHER THAN BLAME

"You didn't take that into account!"
"You forgot to do this!"
"You weren't paying attention!"
"It's your fault that it happened!"

The supervisor who falls into this trap of personalizing and placing blame is only intensifying what he has started out to correct, while rapidly creating problems that may one day return to haunt him.

The reaction of employees to this approach will vary. One may be completely cowed by such an attack, suffering feelings of shame and guilt, and perhaps utter incompetency, as self-confidence rapidly dwindles. How long will it be before he will have the courage to rise above mediocrity and once again operate on his own--contributing, using initiative and adding to the job that "extra" effort, so highly prized?

Another may never say a word, remaining seemingly calm and unperturbed, while deep inside he may be seething with anger and resentment. Unknowingly, in a few short moments, the supervisor has created within the employee a bitterness and indignation that will remain long after the specific incident is forgotten. No supervisor can expect the cooperation he needs from the subordinate who harbors such feelings of animosity.

The aggressive employee, stung by accusation, fights back with excuses and counter-arguments, as meaningless talk camouflages simmering temper and rising hostility. As reason departs and emotions take over, the error may become completely lost and forgotten in a storm of purposeless wrangling.

To prevent entrapment in this pattern of blame and resentment, both supervisor and subordinate must keep attention focused on the error itself. This keeps the discussion in bounds, and reduces the chance for further unrelated criticism. Remaining calm and unemotional will help create an atmosphere of permissiveness so that the problem can be discussed freely and intelligently. It is then that misunderstandings can be cleared and ways developed to prevent a reoccurrence of the error.

LET THE EMPLOYEE LOOK AT THE ERROR

In many cases, the error is readily apparent, but in some it may be more difficult to see. The employee may be a bit hazy regarding just what has gone wrong. The supervisor's explanation must be clear and explicit. The employee must fully understand the mistake he has made and the consequences of that mistake. He must never leave the interview with the slightest doubt as to exactly what the trouble was all about.

In this process of "looking" at the error, benefit can be derived from allowing the employee to discover the error for himself. Restating the instructions--telling him again what is wanted and why it is wanted--is a technique that can help him to make this discovery. It is here that he may exclaim, "I'm wrong! I didn't do it that way! I made a mistake!" Let him tell you, being the first to use such words as "wrong" or "mistake". This is quite different from your telling him. It can take much of the sting out of the interview, encouraging cooperation and discussion, while reducing the possibility of employee resistance.

FIND HOW TO AVOID REPETITION OF THE ERROR

It is obvious that, in addition to the actual correction, there must be developed a way to prevent future repetition of the error. In considering preventive measures, the employee can play an important part. Realizing this, the supervisor should encourage him to take an active part in the interview. It is quite possible that, being closer to the specific job than the supervisor, the employee's view of the situation may be more detailed and his suggestions of considerable merit.

Key questions inviting his contributions could be:

"How might we do this next time?"
"Can this be simplified?"
"Is there a better way of doing this?"

The process now becomes a truly joint operation as some of the responsibility for solving the problem is shared by the employee. This is desirable, since it can reduce the employee's inclination to feel blamed and criticized, while at the same time it frees the supervisor from the harsh role of autocrat.

STRENGTHEN RESPONSIBILITY TOWARD THE JOB

The supervisor can make effective use of the corrective interview as an opportunity for further training and clarification as he reviews with the employee the employee's specific job responsibilities, showing him precisely what his job is and how it

fits into the overall picture. It is a chance to let the employee know that he is needed and is important to the success of the organization. It can be an occasion not only to strengthen his responsibility toward the job, but also to create and cultivate within him a desire to do better in the future.

In that we are human, errors and the people committing them, will be many and varied. The supervisor faces this daily, continually in contact with new and different combinations of people and things gone wrong. Each of the resulting multitude of problems demands a solution. His approach to the proper solution may vary with the facts and personalities involved, but the general ground rules under which he operates should always remain the same, applicable to all people and situations.

The six "ground rules" developed here, when thoughtfully applied, will not only remove much of the "error" found in the typical error-correction talk, but will greatly aid the overall growth, development and efficiency of the human work force.

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ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION

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SUMMARY

Some people believe that the implementation of an idea should be sought by direction, backed up by power and possibly by fear. However, it is becoming increasingly evident that men and management are not only more free, but are more productive when they work together voluntarily under mutually acceptable terms. This logic applies to many other phases of our living together in a democracy. Ours is a meeting-of-minds civilization. The right to persuade and a willingness to be persuaded are basic.

Acquiescence must be achieved through individual relations with each employee if the rank-and-file workers are to be cooperative members of an effectively producing organization. This is the essence of the problem of securing optimum performance and is particularly important because of the age of specialization in which we live.

We agree that management must manage--that responsibility for the success of an enterprise is management's. Management must carry the authority to solve problems. But the exercise of the problem-solving authority involves much more than arbitrary direction which, in fact, may not solve the problems at all. The right to manage is the responsibility to initiate and the opportunity to win understanding and acceptance. In such terms, exercise of the authority to decide, which remains in management, has different results which, in turn, are consequential in determining competitive positions or organizations.

The changing concepts of human relations in industry have given a great impetus to a search into the human will to work. It is important that our basic philosophy be correct.

It is comparatively easy to prosper by trickery, the violation of confidence, oppression of the weak, sharp practices, cutting corners -- all of those methods that we are so prone to condone as "business shrewdness."

It is difficult to prosper by the keeping of promises, the deliverance of value in goods, in services and in deeds -- and in the meeting of so-called "shrewdness" with sound merit and good ethics.

The easy way is expedient and speedy -- the hard way ardous and long. But as the clock ticks, the easy way becomes harder and the hard way becomes easier. And as the calendar records the years, it becomes increasingly evident that the easy way rests hazardously upon shifting sands, whereas the hard way builds solidly a foundation of confidence that cannot be swept away.

Failure on the part of management to maintain adequate employer-employee relationships can cause real trouble. In a study made by Dr. Rexford B. Hersey, of the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, it was found that the one common source of employee dissatisfaction and irritation was the "type of man in charge". At every company where Dr. Hersey made his studies, the supervisor was ranked high among the most irritating factors. To employees, the supervisor is frequently a grievance. Some of this adverse reaction arises from the simple fact that the supervisor is the "boss". Studies indicate, however, that the employee resentment is not against the holding of power per se, but rather against the manner in which the power is used. Because employee-supervisor relationships have a direct bearing on motivation, we will want to discuss it later under the general subject of "Leadership".

In addition to maintaining good relationships, the supervisor must have the ability to motivate people. While this ability is the one most difficult to obtain, it is also the most profitable of all management requirements. The skill of motivation in American industry lags behind our technical development by possibly a half century. Great segments of our economy have not realized its importance, much less developed its technique. Yet motivation, which is essentially a psychological progress, accounts for about 90 percent of the great achievements of all time.

Why is the ability to motivate people the most profitable of all management skills? It is profitable because the average employee, at whatever level you find him, calls on only a minor fraction of the skills he is capable of using. We do not tap the major potential of most people. Reason is that we have not acquired adequate skill in motivating techniques.

What are the requirements for motivating people?

The first requirement is to believe in people. If you as a manager do not think your employees can plan better, perform better and accept greater responsibility, then you are probably not giving them the opportunity to do so.

Next, you have to set a proper example. You must have an attitude that appeals to your workers and the kind of habits you want your people to copy in order to achieve your purposes. Every day, for example, you must exert the sort of effort you would like your employees to exert. Leadership in motivation requires performance on the part of the leader.

Participation is the third element in motivation. Virtually no one is motivated to unusual achievement if he does not participate and have some responsibility for the planning and decision-making involved in his problem. Participation calls for challenging problems, delegation of authority, friendly co-ordination, an atmosphere of acceptance and an ability to work with people.

The fourth element in motivation is the provision of adequate incentives and rewards for effort. If well done, this factor alone will stimulate tremendous motivation. It is the keystone of our economic, political and social way of life. It includes opportunity and advancement as well as dollars.

The fifth requirement in motivation is recognition of the achievements of the people involved. Over the years, we are moving farther away from the fear of not having the bare necessities of life essential to our security. This being so, we then move deeper into the area of psychological requirements. Most important of these is the recognition of the importance of and the satisfaction that comes from any job well done.

The final element in motivation is the nature of the job itself. People do need to have assignments they are capable of completing and work they believe to be wholesome and important. They most assuredly need to know the relationship of their particular assignment to the results of the whole production and to the objectives of the enterprise.

When we have mastered the skill of motivation, we have mastered all the skills of management.

Now that we have stated the requirements for motivation, let us consider how to do it.

At this point, let us recognize that we are living in an age of specialization. Because of this specialization, we are more dependent upon each other, and as a result of this inter-dependency, we are losing our prerogative of being able to do "as we darn please". Instead, we must learn to work more effectively and harmoniously together.

Motivation is contingent upon an effective and harmonious relationship and it is necessary, therefore, to give some attention to human behavior and how it affects both the supervisor and the employee.

One of the significant developments in the social sciences has been the formulation of the concept and the general agreement that man is a social being. That's a very simple statement to formulate and in one way or another it has been known for many, many centuries. But, it is another thing to be able to utilize this statement as a fundamental principle and deduce from it the consequences that are implied. It is particularly difficult for us to appreciate the implications of this concept because we are habituated to thinking in terms of individuals. We are trained to approach humans as individuals. But in order to approach them as individuals, we have to see them as entities. When we see them as entities, we see them as independent systems and when we see them as independent systems, we have to look inside the person for an explanation of his behavior. This is what we are accustomed to and, because it is, what I've just said is perfectly obvious to you.

But, suppose that we approach this from another point of view. Suppose we say that the individual as such does not exist--and that we not think of the individual as an entity. Let us assume that the behavior of the human being emerges as the consequence of stimulation and interaction with other beings. If a human is regarded as a social being, we should approach his behavior pattern from the standpoint of relationships. In what setting are these relationships to be approached scientifically? We find that one of the best ways of answering that question is to look for it in what social scientists call the small group. Some of us call such groups "cliques". The small group is a system of relationships. The small group, then, is a system, and the result of the operations of this system are the behavior patterns that we attribute to individuals. If you can generate behavior in a small group system, then we can change it in the same framework.

Well, how big is small, or how small is small? We can answer this question with considerable precision. There is a good deal of evidence that the maximum size of the group will be five. When you get to about five, you have reached the limit of the interaction that human beings are capable of on a continuous, spontaneous basis. Such a "group" could be larger, but if you want full participation and interaction amoung the members, five is the maximum. At five a miracle occurs. When you go from five to six, the leadership function will emerge from nowhere. You set the condition that you want six persons to interact in the group and the leadership function of necessity will emerge. And leadership will have to continue as a formal function so long as you want that group to continue in existence. Otherwise, the group will subdivide. If you want a leader, and knock out the condition of spontaneity, then you can increase the size of the group to about ten to twelve, and that is maximum. Surely, you can have more people present, but they won't be active, or if they are active, they won't be optimally active. In those groups where there is a leader, the average size is around eight. You can go above eight, but as you

do this, you run into more and more inefficiency.

The small group, when tied to other systems, generates organization. In the small group system we find the elements which control human behavior: these are the establishment of standards by the group, status of the members of the group, role behavior and motivational phenomenon.

HOW WE SEE EACH OTHER

At this point, let us consider the general problem of how we see each other. The external world emanates stimuli which forms the basis of our experience. These stimuli are picked up by our senses, and interactions occur within the body. We organize these stimuli into patterns. Mother Nature doesn't do it for us.

This is the point where the men are separated from the boys. The boys think that these stimuli impinge on the senses and give a perfectly true representation of reality. The men say it's far more complicated, and that you can develop profoundly different philosophies about reality.

In any event, we pattern the stimuli and freeze the pattern by labeling it, and when we've frozen the pattern by the labeling, we can communicate that pattern through the medium of the label. We communicate the processed stimuli by symbolic means to the next guy who, in turn, repeats it, and so on. And indeed, if it isn't monkeyed around with, this frozen element or pattern will be passed on from generation to generation. The fact that different cultures responding to the same sources of stimuli come up with different response reactions is due to the way they happen to process the stimuli.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, writing in his book entitled "The Common Law" said, "A very common phenomenon, and one very familiar to the student of history is this. The customs, beliefs, or needs of a primitive time establish a rule or a formula. In the course of centuries the custom, belief, or necessity disappears, but the rule remains. The reason which gave rise to the rule has been forgotten, and ingenious minds set themselves to inquire how it is to be accounted for. Some ground of policy is thought of, which seems to explain it, and to reconcile it with the present state of things; and then the rule adapts itself to the new reasons which have been found for it, and enters on a new career. The old form receives a new content, and in time even the form modifies itself to fit the meaning which it has received." Here is an example of labeling a pattern.

Suppose now we ask ourselves what we mean by a fact. You can say that facts are tentative; that they are generally a matter of social agreement. A fact today will not be a fact tomorrow and what is not a fact today can be a fact tomorrow. If you look back on the development of your own science you will know that there

have been facts in the past which are no longer facts today and new facts developing which are not yet recognized universally.

Suppose then that we move directly to the general problem of communication. If I look upon the other person with my eyes and hear him with my ears, maybe touch him with my hands, I will come to some kind of conclusion about what kind of a person that individual is. And I will say that person possesses a certain set of attributes. I will say that person has a whole constellation of characteristics. If we perceive these characteristics, we are likely to be pretty sure they belong to the individual from which they came. When I walk up to a car salesman and I say, "How about selling me an automobile? How are the automobiles this year? How much do they cost? Less than ever before? How much will you give me for my car?" I know that the salesman who wants to sell me an automobile is going to be using some of his words loosely. So I am going to project on him a set of attributes or characteristics derived from a theory and experience about how he behaves. But suppose that I just came in from a period of 15 years of isolation. My frame of reference might be so far at variance with his frame of reference that I would be surprised, even stunned.

So if you want to communicate effectively, be sure that you are using a common set of concepts. Be sure that the other fellow has the same meaning for these concepts that you do. Otherwise, you'll use the same words, but you won't be talking about the same thing. For we have said, a fact does not exist by itself. It is tied into a frame of reference. So, we have different frames of reference and the very first thing to take account of when we are concerned with problems of communication is to recognize that our perceptions are not the same.

To further illustrate our concepts or frames of reference, let us suppose that we all took a ride up to Mt. Hood. In our group we had a geologist, a poet, a photographer, and an Indian. We would readily agree that the mountain is there. Suppose we ask the poet about this mountain. He will look at it and say, "What a magnificent structure! One of God's truly great creations! A tower of strength, a symbol of nobility!" The photographer might say, "That thing's so darn big that the only way that I can get the whole thing is at quite a distance and I'll never get the detail. I can get details of parts of it, but I can't get the whole thing. It's too big." If we ask the Indian about that mountain, he might say, "Stay away from it. That's where the evil spirits live." Then if we ask the geologist, he would say, "That mountain is a symbol of weakness. It took a weak spot in the earth's crust to permit this upheaval, and this towering giant is a symbol of great weakness."

And now I will ask you, "Which is the true frame of reference?" Logically, one reference is as good as any other. You can only classify frames of reference in terms of what you want them to do for you. And so, perception is influenced by our concepts and relationships.

And now let us consider the effects of leadership upon motivation.

LEADERSHIP

It is frequently assumed that managerial ability is something which is inherited like blue eyes or small feet. On this basis, managerial succession in an organization reduces itself merely to discovering those persons who have this rather nebulous ability and promoting them to places where they can let their natural inclination take its course.

However, managerial ability is not an accident of birth but is fundamentally the product of practice and learning. In fact, many of the important characteristics of a good manager actually go against an individual's natural inclination. As a result, we have to work to overcome some things which are born into us. In other words, we have to guard against being too human. We have to be careful that our heart is not permitted to rule our head.

Among the characteristics that do not come naturally to the manager is the ability to delegate. In a recent football game the University of Virginia was penalized 15 yards because the coach threw a kicking tee on the field. The team was down near the goal line and it was the last down. In throwing the kicking tee on the field, the coach--so the referee ruled--was taking away from the quarterback a decision which had to be the player's. The decision was whether or not a try should be made for a field goal or for the first down.

Results of the coach's action were quick and sure. His team was penalized because he had tried to take away a decision from his quarterback, and the rules of football demand delegation. In other words, to have a winning team, the coach must impart whatever he knows about the game and its execution before the play begins. He can't even walk onto the field without prior approval.

Now the rules of management with respect to delegation are just as explicit as those in football. Unfortunately they cannot be enforced as readily. Perhaps we should have men in striped shirts standing around our halls and our work areas to blow the whistle on us when we don't delegate as we should.

Why must a manager delegate? First, because he is responsible for more work than he can do. Thus, the only question that remains, is the degree to which he will delegate. Second, we must provide for organizational depth. Preparation must be made for the time when a particular manager might be taken out of the organization either through promotion, illness, a business trip, or through resignation, or other reason. We must make sure that other employees down the line are participating in the work, so that they can carry it on if the need arises.

A second characteristic of a good manager, and again one that goes against the grain of human nature, is willingness to change.

Shortly after the opening of school last fall, one of the youngsters said the teacher this year was not quite up to the standard of the previous teachers. His classmates concurred in his conclusion. Upon probing a bit, however, it was found that the conclusion stemmed from the fact that the teacher had committed the unforgivable sin of changing the seating order of the class. In doing so, she had changed an important part of the life of the pupils, and the pupils did not like change.

If, then, change is so important, why are we so consistent in resisting it? Basically, because change challenges our security.

We do not take to change readily because to do so requires additional effort. We have to plan more than we would ordinarily. We have to have our employees work overtime. We have to face difficult problems which would not have come up otherwise. How many times have you heard the statement, "If I had known it was going to be this much trouble, I never would have started it." How good that we do not know the trouble we are getting into, because if we did, perhaps we would not make as many changes as we do.

This desire for the status quo is a part of each of us. We like to get out of the rut for a short time and go on a vacation. But after two or three weeks we look forward to getting back home into the old routine. Temporary change is all right, but it's always good to know we can go back after a prescribed time to the habit patterns we have learned to depend upon.

Almost invariably personnel books contain a section on how to make change palatable to the employee. They go to quite some detail in cautioning how management should keep the employee constantly advised of changes which might affect him and how the employee should be given the chance to participate in making decisions, so that he will more readily agree and adapt to the change. But note that little, if anything, is said in these books about how to make change palatable to managers. Assumed, apparently, is that the manager will agree to change. That is an assumption that promotion will change human nature. If employees are against change, then managers, who were employees yesterday, also have a leaning against change.

The third characteristic which is contrary to human nature but is necessary to managerial competence is in the area of personal acceptance by the group.

Belonging is one of the deepest desires of the human heart. Whether with the group at work, or with a group socially, we want to feel that we are one of them, that we belong. In fact, management demands that we be accepted by our group because an organization succeeds only through team effort. Management wants a good team, and often employees who can not get along and gain acceptance from the group lose their jobs.

We want to be of help to our fellow man. But we must be aware that this inclination of our human nature, if permitted to run its natural course, will keep us from delegating, make us adverse to change, and cause us to follow the kind of behavior which does not bring acceptance. This matter of acceptance of a supervisor by the group he supervises is one of the most difficult problems confronting leadership.

At this point, I am sure we would agree that a leader is a person who has certain attributes, certain characteristics. One line of traditional theory even argued that these characteristics were inborn. The object was to provide you with a favorable environment in which they might develop.

Let us again try reversing our approach to the problem. Suppose we look at the system of relationships which the small group represents and ask ourselves: "What is there about this system that can help us to understand the phenomenon of leadership?" One thing we notice is that the system has to have some kind of orderliness. For if we start with this, we come to the startling conclusion that this thing we call leadership is a function. And that any individual who can perform the function is the leader. When an individual carries out the function, he is the leader. When he ceases to carry out the function, he is not the leader. We have also been able to observe that the same individual may be a leader in one situation and not in another, and that the same individual's functional niche may change through time.

If leadership were an inborn quality, then we could expect that this person would play a more or less constant role wherever he went, and as he moved around society, people would look at him and say, "There goes a natural-born leader". If, we approach it from a functional point of view, we can then train people for the leadership role. In other words, the training process can be invoked for the purpose of producing the pattern of behavior we require.

Now we are not going to say that any given individual is trainable for this. We are not going to say that there are some individuals with an inborn inability which prevents their being trained for leadership. On a probability basis, however, results of exposing thousands of individuals to certain training and background should be predictable. And, in fact, we can do just that. We can deduce the appropriate training methods to produce the product that we want.

Considerable research has been done on leadership. We have noticed a certain phenomenon and it can best be observed in a spontaneity situation. You set a group into action and then let it alone. You don't define roles, you just put individuals together, give them a job and then watch them. One of the things you will notice is that the leadership function will emerge before your eyes and you will also notice that it will shift from hand to hand. You

will observe further that it will shift about in a certain way. In the first instance, it will tend to pass to the individual who talks the loudest and firstest. He'll step right up and he'll say: "Let's do it this way". And before the other fellows have oriented themselves to the problem, he is the leader. And the next thing that will tend to happen if the fellow is a poor leader, he will steal ideas. He will take credit for those ideas rather than to give credit to whom it is due. If he's a poor leader, he will usually demonstrate a remarkable capacity for maneuver. He holds this role by stealing ideas, by talking loud, or being angry. By doing one thing or another, he keeps his critics off balance so that it takes considerable time before the group recognizes that this fellow is carrying out the function poorly. Eventually the new leader is able to come in. If a group is very small -- three or four or five -- two distinctive types of leadership function will emerge. One distinctive type we call the interpersonal leader. He is the individual who is able to reinforce the ego of the others. They look to him as a person. They laugh at his jokes and are pleased by the sound of his voice and feel comfortable with him. The second type of leadership that emerges is what we call intellectual or task-oriented. This is the individual who is relatively quiet but works steadily on the task. He is the one who more often than not makes the contribution that is significant to the solution of the problem. In a little larger group -- seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven -- especially of a conference group, we can discern different types of leadership. We can discern the so-called chairman who regulates, makes sure that there are orderly interactions. In addition to him, you can perceive the critic, and other roles that have to be played. We can perceive the resource person to whom you go to for technical information and the idea man, the individual who is stimulating because of the new notions that he provides. There is also the analyst! This is the individual who can show you the illogical inconsistencies in your attack on the problem. Sometimes an individual can play more than one role. Traditionally, we think of one person as "the leader" and we give him credit for everything, but when we look analytically at the way the group actually functions, we are able to discern that there are different dimensions to this thing, all aspects of which need to be taken account of if one wants to have an optimally functioning group.

In a truly large organization, the further the individual with top leadership responsibility is detached from the person who actually does the work, the more dependent that individual is, and, indeed, the more help he needs to carry out the function of leadership. So instead of finding one person who is the ultimate source of widsom, reason, and so on, we find that the leadership function in large organizations takes the form of a hierarchy of small groups interconnected by lines of communication and authority. The leadership function has become so complicated that it is no longer possible for one individual to do it. Even in the small group of three or four or five more than one person contributes to the carrying out of the function. And, further, as the small groups become connected

to other small groups to form organizations, the hierarchy of leadership becomes more intricate and specialized. Now we are a long way from the idea that a single individual through his attributes constitutes "the leader".

It is becoming clearer, perhaps, then it used to be, that what we call the reasoning process can only work in a deductive frame of reference. We have to get rid of formalistic agendas and so on, and open up the trial and error method, the spontaneity, the route to thinking the unthinkable, and imagining the unimaginable. So, one of the truly important innovations and developments in the field of applied social science today, is to learn more how to use the informal approach.

There is another aspect of leadership, and it's quite relevant to our discussion. When you deal in the community with other agencies, other organizations, you will, of course, have to do certain things. If you were to find yourself in a strange community and you wanted to know where the decisions were made, you would be likely to go to the mayor, to the head of the school board, head of the tax commission, and so on. Studies indicate that in a community there is likely to be at least one group of leaders. The criterion of membership for such a committee, such a group, is that they have a common interest, and that each individual is willing to give them to the furtherance of the common interest by this means. This group will exist informally. It will not have a panelled room for its meetings, necessarily. It will meet whenever it wants to meet, usually whenever there's a problem. And it will discuss this problem and arrive at a consensus. If this committee or this group really represents the power relations of the community, then you can't get anything significant done, without first getting the support of this group. We call such a power group the "king-makers". In a big city, one is likely to find a number of cliques of this kind; they are very difficult to identify because they work in a more or less informal, subrosa fashion.

We may safely conclude that leadership is a function, and that the direction of leadership is controlled by the small group. In general, it may be said that a high function of leadership is to translate the goal of an organization into such concrete and stimulating terms that individuals who are led will not only perceive the validity of the group objective for the organization as a whole but also see in the accomplishment of that objective a way of honorable self-fulfillment.

One cannot induce men who are fashioned in the awesome image of their Maker to work happily for purposes which they cannot understand, or to become reconciled to viewing their life work as merely part of the ceaseless grinding of a giant machine. Human dignity requires worthy ultimate ends for human striving.

The educational task of leadership is to raise the aims of human effort from the plane of the humdrum, the routine and the impersonal, and to place them on a level worthy of the dignity and integrity of the individual man.

Now that we have studied the effect of leadership on motivation, let us consider the impact of group decisions.

SUMMARY OF TRAINING FILM AND EXPLANATION

By Luther B. Burkett

The film and the explanation concerned methods used to get the most out of training film as a tool for teaching.

The main points for two methods are listed below:

1. Method as described by the training film

   A. Preview the film
   B. Develop a plan
   C. Prepare showing place
   D. Prepare student
   E. Present key points
   F. Show film
   G. Review key points
   H. Test

2. Method known as the "Job Instruction Training" or J. I. T.

   A. Prepare learner (motivate)
   B. Show how (demonstrate)
   C. Application (with supervision)
   D. Test and follow-up

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

By John M. Young

Graduated University of California 1930. Family Publishing Business until 1941. Joined the Federal Service January, 1942.

Had various assignments with the War Department in California and Washington, D. C., until November 1954, when he was appointed as Regional Director of the Eleventh U. S. Civil Service Region.

SUMMARY

This is a difficult subject if only for the reason that it has more than its share of broad, well-rounded terms that may mean different things to each of us. It is a subject where one becomes guilty of "allness" even without intention. "Allness" is a term for a sweeping generalization like "television programs are very poor." It seems to me that this topic is "allness-prone."

A further problem arises from the number of words or labels involved that have the same or at least over-lapping meanings. Leader, executive, manager, and supervisor are examples. To avoid this difficulty, I will consider these labels to be the same and in my remarks will attempt no distinction. I am considering also that people with these labels exist at various levels in organizations, not just the man at the top.

Pfiffner and Presthus in their book "Public Administration" define leadership as "The art of directing, coordinating, and motivating individuals and groups to achieve desired ends." This would seem to be an adequate definition for my purposes.

When the study of scientific management began, Taylor discovered that proper equipment and methods had a great effect on how much a group could produce. Working originally with a gang shoveling material into cars, he gradually reduced the size of the shovels and found that size where production peaked. Still pursuing this "perfect shovel" some years later, the famous Western Electric experiment found that there was something else....something less tangible and precise than equipment and method....it was people. You remember that working with a group of women doing an assembling job, the engineers were looking for, among other things,

the proper lighting level. They found, however, that they could change the lighting up to sunlight intensity and nearly down to a moonlight level and still increase production as long as they kept the interest of the group. Since then the effort to find out what makes people tick and encourages them to produce more on the job has been a constant goal.

Humans are not machines, however, and finding the right answers has been difficult and confusing. Controlled situations are hard to come by and then, just when you think you have the answer, people change their minds.

The Characteristics of Leadership:

This is the kind of deceptive beast we are pursuing and the trail is not one but many. When we consider the characteristics, qualities, or abilities of the accomplished leader, there are many tracks to follow. Let's look at a few of these to see where they lead.

The consulting firm of Booz, Allen and Hamilton made a study of 3,000 executives with the objective of identifying those characteristics that were discriminating in selecting such men for promotion. By discriminating, they meant that the characteristic was present in a major portion of the successful executives and absent in most of the inadequate performers. They found 30 common-denominator qualities and eight of these they termed "universals" as they tended to distinguish the better men throughout. Another 16 appeared to have specialized usefulness in certain job types. The "universals" were: position performance, drive, intellectual ability, leadership, administrative ability, initiative, motivation, and creativeness. There was much more to this survey but, at the moment, I only want to point out the study's concern with executive characteristics.

Fortune Magazine on a similar hunt came up with 14 "indispensable" traits: judgment, initiative, integrity, foresight, energy-drive, human relations skill, decisiveness, dependability, emotional stability, fairness, ambition, dedication, objectivity, and cooperation. Still another blood-hound, Mr. Anshen, of the Carnegie Institute of Technology, found this list os characteristics: ability and desire for personal growth; understanding of the firm's technology; skill in using the common administrative tools of planning, organization, and control; ability to work with people and motivate them effectively; capacity for thinking beyond departmental limits; understanding of the economic, political, and social environment; courage in making decisions; skill in fostering the development of subordinates; and a creative outlook on innovation.

We note in each of these listings of characteristics a number of similarities although the arrangement and the words used

are different. We might conclude from these and other catalogues of executive characteristics that if it's good the manager or leader should have it!

Robert Katz follows a different trail. His theme is that "performance depends on fundamental skills rather than personality traits." He objects to the search for the "ideal executive." He quotes Perrin Stryker, "The assumption that there is an executive type is widely accepted, either openly or implicitly. Yet, any executive presumably knows that a company needs all kinds of managers for different levels of jobs. The qualities most needed by a shop superintendent are likely to be quite opposed to those needed by a coordinating vice-president of manufacturing. The literature of executive development is loaded with efforts to define the qualities needed by executives, and by themselves, these sound quite rational. Few, for instance, would dispute the fact that a top manager needs good judgment, the ability to make decisions, the ability to win the respect of others, and all the other well-worn phrases any management man could mention. But one has only to look at the successful managers in any company to see how enormously their particular qualities vary from any ideal list of executive virtues."

Katz says there are three basic developable skills that executives must have or that leadership requires. He calls these technical, human and conceptual:

"Technical skill implies an understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity, particularly one involving methods, processes, or techniques."

"Human skill is the ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team he leads."

"Conceptual skill involves the ability to see the enterprise as a whole; it includes recognizing how various functions of the organization depend on one another, and how changes in one part affect all the others; and it extends to visualizing the relationship of the individual business to the industry, the community, and the political, social and economic forces of the nation as a whole."

At various levels of management the mixture of these skills varies with technical and human skills most important at lower levels, human and conceptual at higher levels, and conceptual assuming greatest importance at the top. Thinking through our own organizations, I believe we can visualize where these mixtures change.

Katz makes another significant point when he says each of these skills can be developed in relationship to a particular situation. Thinking of these skills in this way, they become important in placement, promotion, as well as in training.

Another tracker, Mr. Crawford H. Greenewalt, President of the DuPont Company, also rejects character traits as a means of identifying the effective leader or executive. He says, referring to Fortune's list of 14 traits that there are men with all these virtues who would not make good executives while there are others without them who would be among the best. He goes on..."An executive is good when he can make a smoothly functioning team out of people with the many different skills required in the operation of a modern business. His most important function is to reconcile, to coordinate, to compromise, and to appraise the various viewpoints and talents under his direction to the end that each individual contributes his full measure to the business at hand."

He makes very strongly the point the necessary human sympathy and human understanding must be ingrained and not a surface matter that can be put on or taken off like a coat. Mr. Greenewalt suggests that these talents cannot be taught. As he says, "The good manager manages quite as much with his heart as with his head; quite as much with instinct and intuition as with precise formulae...you can teach a man the sciences, but you cannot make him a scientist. You can teach him engineering, but you cannot make him an engineer. And in exactly the same way, you can teach him executive procedures, but you can't make him an executive."

Roger Jones, Chairman of the CSC, a man with thirty-five years of experience in the Federal Service, most of which has been in key executive roles, says that for success in government, two executive virtues are essential ... humility and adaptability.

Having led you on this merry chase, I should now be ready to disclose the quarry. Unfortunately, my prize is a sorry one and mostly one of negatives. I would conclude that there is no consensus on the characteristics of the leader or executive. He needs many virtues and abilities and these would vary with the type of job, its level in the organization, and the people involved. I think I would agree with Katz too on the point that we can provide training in the skills and knowledges required but would shift to Greenewalt and agree that we cannot "make" a leader. It would appear also that experience in the leadership role is a most valuable instructor. Greenly and Mapal, writing for the American Management Association, said, "These things and many others he (the manager) must be taught; by precept, by example, or by experience. Experience is a dear school, but fools (that includes most of us) will learn from no other."

Identifying Characteristics in the Individual

But even if we could agree on the ideal list of leadership qualities, I doubt that my prize would be more impressive. Having won the list, we would now face the problem of tracking down the characteristics in the individual man. Not only must we struggle with the tyranny of words....my dependable may be your irresponsible....

but also these qualities are not easily discernible like badges or buttons. Authorities generally agree that they can recognize true competence only after years of observation but, as Chairman Jones recently observed, we do not have years to wait.

Experimental methods offer encouragement that we can find ways of breaking away from arbitrary standards of years of experience and possession of college degrees. The new machines, through their ability to digest and analyze large quantities of data, may help us find the way to identifying the leaders we need so badly.

Now let us look at some of the other aspects of Administrative Leadership.

The Changing Environment of Leadership:

Whoever holds the leadership jobs in the years ahead will be faced with a fast-moving, fast-changing environment. In the past fifty years, we have moved from one emergency to another, clinging fast to the hope "that the dynamic events of the day were abnormal, and that tomorrow we would return to the old stability." Now we have come to accept the fact that "change is the order of the day, and that the need for change may arrive on short notice or no notice at all."

In the function of personnel management, which is my special interest, we see almost an upheaval. Major changes are being proposed in our recruiting and examining system, our methods of determining and setting pay, and our organization for personnel management. But this is just an example. I'm sure we are all aware of how the pace of change has accelerated in every field. The impact of automation on our administrative practices is just beginning. This means additional burdens and problems for our managers. A publication of the Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania put it this way, "Business leadership is getting harder. A generation ago it called for 'knowing the business'. Today it calls for knowing mankind. Since humanity is dynamic, tomorrow the job will be even more demanding."

Government is Different:

Although there are great similarities in administrative practice between government and industry, there are also significant differences. The executive in government faces problems that the man in industry would find unique. These matters, as well as others bearing on the leadership role in government, are very effectively presented in a book published last year by the Brookings Institution, "The Job of the Federal Executive" by Marver Bernstein. It is a summary of a series of round-table discussions by top political and career executives in the Federal Service. The subject matter concerns the Washington level of government but it provides insight into the operation that we should all understand. The book emphasizes the goldfish bowl in which the Federal executive operates, the multiple

influences of the Executive Office of the President, the Congress, interest groups, and the public in general. It makes the point that seldom is an agency program a matter of concern to that agency alone as missions are not that clearly defined. Consequently, a great deal of time must be spent in meetings to reconcile differences. The natural administrative desire to operate without interference results in conflicts between field office and bureau, bureau and department, department and the Presidential agencies. These and other problems of leadership are explained in a very interesting manner, largely in the words of our practicing superiors.

Our Government is too important to us and the world to consider the possibility of its not working. It must work and work effectively with all its handicaps and within the short political cycles governed by elections. This in itself is one of our big problems. Top policy-making jobs are properly filled by political executives so that the government is responsive to the will of the electorate. During periods of emergency, obtaining and retaining these officials is not too great a problem but without such urgency, the problem can become extreme. In the years '41 to '45, the percentage of business executives in government who served one year or less was 16%. This percentage has gone steadily upwards until between '53 - '56, 70% served this short time. Considering the size and complexity of Federal agencies, it is not difficult to visualize the administrative problem this creates.

Leadership and the Employee:

Like most other things in our fast-changing era, administrative theories are up for grabs too. One of the hottest battles rages around the leader-subordinate relationship....production-centered versus employee-centered management. Various professors and businessmen are questioning the orientation of business and its objectives:

Lyndall Urwick said, "Profit can be no more the objective of business than betting is the objective of racing, making a score the objective of cricket, or eating is the objective of living;"

O. H. Ohmaun, "The job is the life. This is what must be made meaningful. We cannot assume that the end of production justifies the means. What happens to the people in the course of producing may be far more important than the end product;"

Ralph Cordiner, "The traditional measures of profits, such as return on investment, turnover, and percentage of net earnings to sales provide useful information. But they are hopelessly inadequate as measures to guide the manger's effectiveness in planning for the future of the business;"

And finally Fred Blum, "The idea that workers are to be respected as individual human beings with a sense of dignity may come easily and instinctively, or slowly and perforce because it is expected; but every businessman feels it. Also, taking pride in being practical, every businessman recognizes an apparent (though not automatic) cause-and-effect relationship between the human or social side and the dollars-and-cents side of his enterprise. This well-accepted concept, however, dodges the real issue because it clearly sets the company's goals---efficiency, profit, share of the market---as of the highest priority, and simply considers people as one of the tools to be used to reach these goals. If the development of the people in the company and the fulfillment of their human needs were made a primary or coordinate objective, along with financial success, would we see them differently than we do now.... and perhaps act differently toward them"?

Certainly these comments would apply with equal force to government and they suggest very strongly an employee-centered approach to leadership. There is, however, another side.... not as numerous but just as vocal. They cry 'halt' to the human relations, participative management trend:

Malcolm P. McNair, "The boss should be able, if necessary, to bring a worker up to standard, without any concern as to whether his childhood was unhappy or whether he is having trouble with his wife."

Robert N. McMurry, "Most of this human relations stuff is bunk! It's the autocratic, aggressive executive who gets real results from his subordinates....many members of lower, middle, and even top management are dependent, insecure, and ineffective. They don't want to....and won't....think for themselves. Most people will produce because they are bossed by a strong driving executive who defines and structures their jobs for them, who makes his expectations clear."

My personal views are with those who favor employee-centered, participative management and, even if Mr. McMurry were right, I do not believe we could fit such a pattern into a society that would have much meaning in the future. Only by taking the risks and gambles that aim at strengthening each individual can we build a society that has a solid base.

There are, however, many possibilities between the extremes I have cited and probably, depending on our organization, manpower, and stage of development, we would find situations where each might fit. Perhaps the real difference would be in our eventual objective or goal. Tannenbaum and Schmidt identify seven leadership patterns:

1. Manager makes decision and announces it.
2. Manager sells his decision.
3. Manager presents his ideas, invites questions.
4. Manager presents a tentative decision subject to change.
5. Manager presents the problem, gets suggestions, and then makes decision.
6. Manager defines the limits and requests the group make the decision.
7. Manager permits the group to make decisions within prescribed limits.

The degree of participation in decision making is the factor recognized in this list. It seems to me that there are other matters of equal importance. The kind of thing Peter Drucker was writing about when he said, "A manager develops people. Through the way he manages he makes it easy or difficult for them to develop themselves. He directs people or he misdirects them. He brings out what is in them or he stifles them. He strengthens integrity or he corrupts them. He trains them to stand upright and strong, or he deforms them....whether he knows it or not. He may do them well, or he may do them wretchedly....but he always does them." I think it is important that we recognize that the leadership role is not passive. We are influencing those we are supposed to lead either negatively or positively. We do not have a choice of having no affect at all.

If we look at the leadership role in its entirety, I believe we must come to the conclusion that it embraces more than just seeing that a job is done in the sense of moving boxes from here to there. I am no enemy of production, it is an essential part of the task, but not the entire job. It seems to me that if it were, we would still be moving boxes or perhaps rocks on our backs. Leadership includes the ability to recognize the need for change, the imagination to find a way to make it, the skill of developing people to do it, and the art of completing this cycle again and again.

Dean Stanley F. Teek of the Harvard Business School sets the leader this standard, "A man's personal philosophy, his way of looking at the world and the men and women around him, determine his success as a manager of things and people more than any other single factor. His basic attitudes are far more significant than the techniques he uses.....as we look ahead, we have reason to believe that this will be increasingly true. In short, the time may come when an evil man or one who has no clear sense of values, simply cannot be an effective administrator."

I fear I have found no clear trail to the answers to administrative leadership. Perhaps because this is a subject with more questions about it than answers. I am reminded, however, of H. L. Mencken's comment that, "There is always an easy answer to every human problem....neat, plausible, and wrong!"

DISCUSSION

Some questions posed by the topic of administrative leadership concerned what possible understandings, abilities and skills that technical and scientifically trained people might have that would be advantageous to them in an administrative position and what these same characteristics might have that would be harmful.

It was generalized that undoubtedly, desirable, worthwhile characteristics could and would come from a technical background. The group cited the examples of objectivity, the scientific approach to a problem, assuring applicability to human associations. Not defined, but implied were inherent traits; capacity, natural ability and other unmeasurable, but nonetheless, recognized qualities.

Undesirable characteristics that a technically trained man, in his quest for or his movement toward managerial enlargement might possess, are highly specialized interests that would be hard to leave behind, and intangibles such as lack of capacity for managership.

Other problems discussed involved production control management compared with employee control administration. It was generally believed and the discussion led to the conclusion that the contemporary trend or emphasis, while recognizing the need for both, is increasingly more in direction of the employee approach.

REFERENCE

Brookings Institute, "The Job of the Federal Executive"

THE HUMAN RELATIONS SIDE OF ADMINISTRATION

By Howard Arnett

Lieutenant Commander with the U.S. Navy during the war years.

He joined Portland General Electric in April, 1936 as a meterman and has served in various other departments of the company as apprentice wireman, electrical tester, assistant engineer, purchasing agent, assistant general superintendent and assistant to the chairman of the board and chief executive officer. On August 1, 1956 he was elected to his present position as vice president, where his responsibilities range from sales and customers' service to electric system operation, construction and maintenance.

SUMMARY

I. The Administrative Function

- A. Definition
- B. Relation to Management
- C. Art and Science of Administration
- D. Aspects of Administration
  - 1. Policy formulation and promulgation
  - 2. Organizing
  - 3. Coordinating
  - 4. Communicating
  - 5. Training
  - 6. Human relations

II. The Administrator at Work

- A. Skills Required
  - 1. Technical

2. Human

3. Conceptual

4. Coordinating

B. Decision Making

1. Importance

2. Process

a. Gathering information

b. Staff work

c. Soliciting advice

d. Meetings

e. Timing

f. Making the decision

3. Uncertainties

a. Decisions must be made

b. Time to change and deviate

C. Communications

1. Keeping informed

a. Importance

b. Vertical communications

c. Lateral communications

2. Improving communications

a. Organization

b. Increasing sensitivity

D. Delegation

1. Decentralization of authority

2. Why delegate? Relieve burden, train people

3. Authority, responsibility and accountability

   a. Appointment is opportunity

   b. Authority must be won

4. Delegation versus assignment

5. Problems of delegation

   a. Complicated because between humans

   b. Mostly an art because of interplay of psycho and mental factors - sensitivity is primary

   c. Hinges on relationship of leaders and followers

   d. Hinges on relationships of people in society

   e. Hinges on leaders' behavior - thoughts unspoken are not unfelt

   f. Requires control

      (1) Strykker - decentralization versus centralization

      (2) More decentralization requires more control

   g. Requires knowledge of person

   h. Requires proper attitude

6. Approaches to better delegation

   a. Improve organization

   b. Human relations

      (1) Attitude

      (2) Be willing to entrust

      (3) Give freedom of action

      (4) Strengthen organization

      (5) Permit decision making

c. What to delegate

(1) Details

(2) Minor decisions

(3) Weak functions

d. What not to delegate

(1) Executive action

(a) Objectives

(b) Organization

(c) Motivation

(d) Control

(e) Development

(2) Disciplinary power

(3) Policy making

E. Personnel

1. Hiring

2. Training

3. Promotion

4. Termination

F. Special Problems

1. Line and staff relations

2. Interdepartmental relations

DISCUSSION

A general discussion took place following the speech by Mr. Arnett on the following subjects:

1. Value of training programs

a. On job training
b. Self improvements
c. Schooling

2. Delegating authority

   a. Chain of command
   b. Not delegating too much authority

3. Communications

   a. Grapevine method not too effective

4. How are administrators rated

   a. Harmony in department

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Peterson and Plowman, "Business Organization and Management

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Editors of Fortune, "The Executive Life"

Cordiner, Ralph J., "New Frontiers For Professional Managers"

Parkinson, Professor C. Northcote, "Parkinson's Law"

HARVARD CASE STUDIES DEMONSTRATION

By Rolla A. Reedy and Dr. Milton Davis

Rolla A. Reedy

Bachelors degree in Education, University of Oregon; MS in Education, USC.

Spent 9 years in public schools as teacher, principal and superintendent, 5 years with the Veterans Administration as vocational adviser and for the past 8 years has been the employee development officer for the North Pacific division, U. S. Army Corps Engineers. A part of his responsibility is supervisor training, executive development and conference leadership instruction for their 5000 employees in the Northwest and Alaska.

Dr. Milton Davis

B.S., Reed College, M.A. and Ph.D., Purdue University.
Taught at University of Portlaand three years, Personnel Director at Roberts Bros. Department Store, Portland two and one half years, General Extension Service, Portland five years, teaches Industrial Psychology, Business Administration, Employee Relationships.

Handles business training conferences, employee training seminars, etc., for Extension Division.

DISCUSSION

Schwartz Case

1. As the company employees were divided into two hostile camps, the first step should be to have a cooling off period.

2. Next step would be to call labor management committee in and admit to them that they should have been consulted earlier and let them have problem and solve it the best they can. The president of the company should call the committee in and discuss the problem with them.

   Another alternative suggestion was to drop the program of "time keeping" temporarily.

Dashman Co.

A. Principles of good administration violated.

   1. Manson's principles failed to involve plant managers in decisions to establish central purchasing agency.

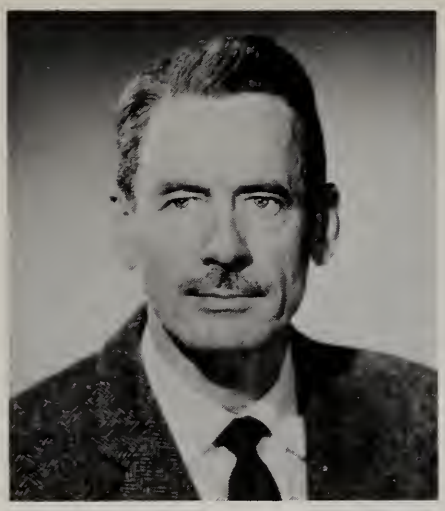
2. Manson failed to establish Post in his new job.
3. Post failed to make personal contact with plant managers to find their needs and offer his service.

B. Breakdown in human relations.

1. Manson should have counselled with plant managers on establishing central purchasing department.
2. Should have started earlier in relation to purchasing season.
3. Post should have gotten acquainted with plant managers and offerred his services to them.

C. Possible courses of action.

1. Manson call a meeting of plant managers and Post to establish position and develop procedures. (Some felt that Post should call this meeting.)
2. Post might visit plants to get acquainted with problems, meet managers and develop procedures.



THE SEMANTICS OF COMMUNICATION

By William H. Pemberton

Undergraduate work - University of Washington, Seattle; AB in Philosophy. Doctorate - University of California, Berkeley.

Consulting psychologist in private practice in San Francisco and Mill Valley.

Lecturer in semantics and communication for the College of Marin, San Francisco Public Schools, and occasionally at San Francisco State and Stanford University (the latter for the U. S. Chamber of Commerce).

Lecturer consultant for USDA as well as the Department of the Army (having been invited to lecture for a week at the Pentagon in February of this year).

SUMMARY

Defensiveness Scale

Authoritarian (Reflex)

1. Ignore - sullen and afraid - "hang up artist"
2. Attack - criticize - give advice - laugh at
3. Deceive - lie by nature - insincere apology - sarcasm (watch out for the "why" question)

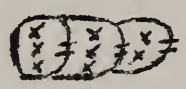
Mature (Reflective)

4. Ask for information. How, when Willing to listen and consider
5. Sincere willingness to reach understanding
6. Mirror back the other's feelings in neutral language

There's More Than One System

11 + 2 = 1. 3 x 3 = 13. 10 + 10 = 100.

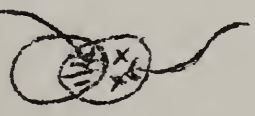
The "Expandable Hypotheses"



leave a gate open

Invariance - The Key To Survival

Invariance (In common)



Relativity (Unique)

We must look for and put emphasis on factors of invariance.

SANITY SPECTRUM - and subjects and topics discussed by William H. Pemberton
at Eleventh Annual TRAINING INSTITUTE FOR PROBATION, PAROLE AND INSTITUTIONAL STAFF
August 7, 1959 - University of California, Berkeley

(estimated distributions - theoretical)

1. Insane	1. Unsane	1. Sane
2. Developmental: a. Infantile	2. a. Adolesc/youth	2. a. Maturity
3. Anthropol: a. Primitive	3. a. Authoritarian/Classical	3. a. Sci/Modern/Semantic
4. Logic: a. "One" val/way, etc.	4. a. "two" val/way, etc.	4. a. "many" val/way, etc.
5. Emotion a. Fear b. Fault: mine	5. a. ANGER (over/covert/reason) b. Fault: his/hers	5. a. Consideration b. Fault? Assumes choice
6. Need for absol. certainty security	6. Defenses against insec. and uncertainty: "must be right" "Blame" and "justify"	6. Acceptance of uncertainty and probability
7. Dependency (invol)	7. Independency (as fraud)	7. Dependency (vol) or inter-dependency
Line of comparative innocence (choice or not to be determined by indiv. case, not generalization)		
8. Time: Predom. "past"	8. Predom. "Future"	8. Predom. "present"
9. Reality: Is so - period!	9. (varying degrees -	9. To me is so, comma, etc.
10. Semantics: Map is territory (Symbol is the symbolized	(varying degrees - - what is said is so)	10. Map is not Territory (Symbol is not the symbolized; may repr. or misrepr.)

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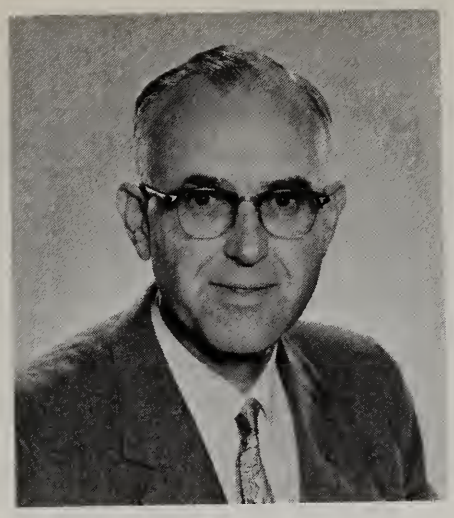

MANAGEMENT FOR TOMORROW

By Dean W. F. Mc Culloch

Joined the OSC staff in 1937, assistant professer of forest management, but left the campus for three years from 1942 to 1945 to be assistant state forester. He returned in 1945 to head the department of forest management and was acting dean in 1952-53 when Dunn was on leave to organize a school of forestry at the University of Chile.

He had had professional forest education work at the University of Washington, New York State College of Forestry, University of British Columbia, and Michigan State College. He has served on more than a dozen national, regional and state committees dealing with forestry and is a nationally recognized leader in forest personnel work.

SUMMARY

Management responsibilities are generally divided between administrative management and operations management. The administrative or human side of management present progressively greater problems as population increases and social organization grows more intricate. Management must plan today for the growth in population tomorrow or it won't survive.

MANAGEMENT YESTERDAY AND TODAY

Most work process was simple years ago. A manager then only had to master the art of handling things. Now a manager must master the art of handling people who handle things. Tomorrow's management will have to have an interest in people, meet their needs, and provide them with inspiring leadership.

TOMORROW'S POPULATION EFFECT ON MANAGEMENT

We are in a period of "population explosion". The resultant jamming of more people into less space and the increasing population will increase a managers problems, even without an increase in the number of his employees. An action which affected only a few in the past will affect millions in the future. The result will be tremendous social and/or political pressures on the manager and his organization. The greater production of people produces management problems in geometric ratio and will continue to do so.

THE PROBLEMS OF EDUCATED PEOPLE

People are now better educated and capable of handling complicated machines and methods. However, the more educated the work force the more difficult it is for management to provide acceptable work satisfactions. The necessarily specialized high-level management denies most employee participation in decisions. More and more employees in the future will have less voice in the affairs of their organizations. Feeling like mere cogs in the machine, educated people will develop morale problems. The rise of the specialist may cause an unpleasant personnel situation. With his narrow interest and his tendency to feel that his speciality is the most important function, he loses contact with the group and cooperation is hampered. People have been educated to wish for goals beyond their abilities to attain. With this in mind, management must make each man's work useful and meaningful.

MANAGEMENT RESPONSIBILITIES TO SOCIETY

Management must be aware of it's responsibilities within the present social environment, and it's administrative functions must relate to it. Management must think in terms of community as well as agency or company. Managers in the future will require greater vision, greater comprehension of the humanities, greater ability to think on a broad scale, analyze, evaluate, and synthesize. They will have to exercise their intellectual capacities, relentlessly pursue education, maintain a vast & comprehensive social understanding. Management must continuously check itself against becoming obsolete in this complex and ever changing environment.

LOYALTY

Personal loyality is diminishing as a consequence of the growth in size of administration. The absence of loyalty presents a hardship to management. Eventually all business will be handled by huge corporations and the resultant elimination of loyalty will increase management problems tomorrow.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Administration differs from business management in that it doesn't report to only one superior or one board of directors, but is accountable to the public. Also, the ponderous size of our state and federal government does not allow independent action, and each part is required to regulations national in application. Tomorrow's governmental managers are faced with more rules and regulations unless capable administrators rise and put an end to red tape.

RECKON THE COST

In order that tomorrow's organizations function adequately the cost of management will be very great. Managers will have to accept responsibility for control over wider and more complex areas. They will deal with more and more people and be confronted with complicated technology. In the face of this he must retain his composure and command his organization. For some conscientious people the tensions of striving for the required managerial perfection may be too great, the compensations too small. Each promotion to a higher executive post brings greater personal costs, which are never offset sufficiently by more dollars. The only real offset is a sense of satisfaction in using a position of greater responsibility for the greater good of mankind. Such lofty inspiration, as well as courage, calmness, competence, a missionary spirit, and a thick hide, are the essential ingredients of success in management for tomorrow.

BROADER UNDERSTANDING OF THE USDA AND THE JOB AHEAD

By Dr. E. R. Draheim

He is a native of Minnesota, received his B.S. and M.S. degrees from the University of Minnesota and Ph.D. degree from Cornell University where he was a member of the faculty.

He was responsible for instituting the TAM (Training in Administrative Management) Program for the Department. He planned, organized and conducted the first three USDA Tam Institutes held at Denver, Atlanta, and Kansas City, and the several local TAM Workshops that preceded the numerous TAM Institutes and Workshops held during the past two years while he was in Korea. From December 1957 until his recent return he was on leave from USDA to the Government of the Republic of Korea where he served as Director and Over-all Adviser in Public Administration for the University of Minnesota Contract with the International Cooperation Administration. Dr. E. R. Draheim returned to duty with USDA on January 5, 1960 to serve as Director of Recruitment.

SUMMARY

It was especially appropriate to have one bring this discussion who had just returned to the United States after two years absence.

We were reminded of the geographical far reaching, complex and multi-functional aspects of the USDA organization. "The common desire of the employee to serve" provides the unity to make the organization a single entity. Dedication to public duty and service has not just happened. It has resulted from leadership in the department by many who have preceded us and distinguished themselves as well as the department.

Foundation for the department was laid as early as 1839 by some simple basic crop and livestock development to improve agriculture. First funds came from the Commissioner of Patents. The USDA was established by the Agriculture Organic Act of 1862, but really got going in 1889 when the agency was raised to cabinet status.

The scope of the department grew steadily, spreading into new areas of research, education, marketing, credit and social

sciences and others. Authority for payments to States for research at experiment stations in many different areas added to the growth.

Government aid programs in agriculture grew out of the collapse of the economy in the early thirties. These were broad programs undertaken to get agriculture and the general economy back on its feet. Most of these programs were referred to as action programs in contrast with on-going research and education activities. Agencies created and still serving were SCS, CSS, FCIC, FHA, REA, AMS and ACPS. All these programs too tended to further broaden the scope of USDA service and leadership.

World War II brought on new problems. There was reorganization of USDA to assist with the war effort. Following the war a major change was made when the P&MA took over most of the WFA functions.

Reorganization was again the key word in the department in 1953. This followed after careful study of the organization brought about by recommendations from the Hoover Commission report. The department became one headed by the Secretary with four major program areas each headed by an Assistant Secretary.

Advantages of this organization were given as:

1. It places definite lines of responsibility.
2. Each agency head has someone on the Secretary's immediate staff from whom he can get policy direction.
3. Takes the agency head out of partisan political matters.
4. It groups like agencies under a specific assistant secretary.
5. Permits the Secretary to devote his time to major agricultural policies.
6. Insures that the policies of the Chief Executive are implemented by providing a political appointee as the head of a group of agencies.
7. Better coordination within the group.

Evidence of current leadership by the department in employee training of personnel was cited by this workshop. Participants were challenged to apply information and training from this workshop experience to "make a greater contribution to the work of the department and receive more personal satisfaction in a job well done". The challenge of the future with modern technology is for increase in size in everything. Management skill is to be at a premium everywhere -- including the USDA and opportunity will be at hand for those who have developed or have potential for this skill, art or science.

We are living in an era of technological revolution in science, transportation and also in agriculture. The production picture has changed rapidly, from one of frequent famines among the American

Indians 200 years ago, to one where the American farmers in 1940 produced enough for himself and 8 others, and where one farmer now feeds himself and 24 others. The U. S. Department of Agriculture has had a great deal to do with the advancement to a "land of abundance".

Things are moving so fast in many areas of life that we have to keep running to stay where we are. In this age of speed and technology, decisions must be made faster than ever before. Never before has it been so important to look ahead, plan ahead, and to set goals for ourselves and those who work with us, especially in USDA.

If present estimates are correct the world's population will double in the next 40 years. The U.S. population is expected to keep pace with the world-wide "population explosion". Our agricultural output increased 35 to 45% since 1940. It will have to increase that much again by 1975 to supply food for the increased population. Today we have a surplus -- tomorrow, what? American technology will meet the demands by continuing with needed changes, through education, research, and emphasis on the cooperative efforts of the federal government, the state, the community, and the private citizens.

Government, today, is the biggest influence in the lives of all of us. You are a part of it. Its undertakings are so vast, so numerous and diverse, it performs few tasks efficiently or with complete effectiveness. Bigness in government imposes additional burdens and responsibilities on each of us in government. It also presents us with challenges to develop ourselves to our maximum, to use our individual and collective ingenuity and creativeness to promote the greatest possible efficiency and economy in our operations and programs. Employees need to keep this admonition in mind so USDA does not get tagged with the label of desiring bigness.

You have been selected to attend this Workshop because your agency and the department has faith in you. Your agency is looking to you for leadership, for vision, for ingenuity, for ideas, for increased efficiency, for greater economy and improved management. You also have been presented with the challenge of contributing to the growth and development of others. Your job is to continue to learn, to develop, and keep a fair and open mind and help others to learn. Herein lies the strength of the Department of Agriculture, our government, our way of life. We will need to train and select, from this group, tomorrow's managers.

We have a Department of Agriculture in which we can take pride in its past accomplishments, in its attempt to bring a better living for all farmers and ranchers in this country, and to all users of agricultural commodities. We have one of the most difficult jobs of managing anywhere in the Federal Government. We have been pioneers in many of the management developments. We must keep on pioneering and exploring for sound and constructive ideas for better service to the public through administrative capability and enterprise.

There is need for better public understanding of career service and the tangible values that accrue from recruiting and training well qualified personnel in the public service. To preserve the dignity and confidence necessary to continuity of good government, each of us must develop within himself a spirit of truly dedicated service. Each of us becomes an ambassador for the Department and for Federal Service in general. We must be fully responsive to changing policies and conditions, subordinating personal ideas and reactions to the inherent public obligation for faithful and devoted service. We must be sensitive to the expectations of the the Congress and the public.

The real test of the effectiveness of this Management Workshop will come in the future when we will know if we have an adequate supply of competent, capable people to fill our key positions. If there is an adequate supply, our training program will have been a good one. If there isn't, we have failed -- and failed miserably. The challenge is yours!! What do you -- <u>each</u> and <u>every one</u> of <u>you</u> intend to do about it?

APPENDIX

USDA TAM WORKSHOP COMMITTEE ASSIGNMENTS

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE:

Frank Belmont, AMS
Gene Lear, Ext.
Bob Beeman, FS
Ed Marshall, FS
Wilbur Cooney, OSC

This committee will be responsible for the preparation and publication of the proceedings of the Workshop. It will contain: Summaries of talks and discussions; a brief biographic sketch of each speaker; names of those who wrote the summary; and similar information. You will set up the format for the booklet (samples from other workshops will be available as guides). Clerical assistance will be provided. In previous TAM Workshops, the completed copy of the proceedings has been placed in the hands of the participants on the last day. This is your challenge.

LIBRARY COMMITTEE:

Edgar Baumann, SCS
C. L. Smith, Ext.
Kenneth Carl, State Dept. of Agric.

A reference library will be set up for use by the participants at the Workshop. Participants may read the books on location or check them out and read them in their rooms. Arrangements have been made with the State Library to obtain useful books which they have; and references also will be secured from other sources. The task of your committee will be to set up and operate the Workshop library.

ADVISORY STEERING COMMITTEE:

Carl Johnson, CSS
Mel Suchy, FS
Jesse Hathhorn, SCS
Ted Dunwoodie, ASC
W. G. Nibler, Ext.

This committee will work closely with the Workshop Director. Its responsibility will be to help plan, organize, modify, and conduct the daily activities of the Workshop. This committee also will review several motion pictures dealing with various aspects of management and determine whether any of these should be fitted into the workshop program.

Each of the above committees will meet Monday afternoon or evening to organize for its job. Members of the workshop planning committee will be present to advise and assist.

WORKSHOP ASSIGNMENTS FOR

PRESIDING OFFICERS
DISCUSSION LEADERS
SUMMARIZERS

January 25, forenoon

Presiding officer -- R. M. Alexander, OSC
Summarizers -- Raymond J. Boyd, SCS, and
Darryl E. Storm, State Board of Forestry
Discussion leader -- Mel Suchy, FS

January 25, afternoon

Presiding officer -- Ted Dunwoodie, ASC
Summarizers -- Carl H. Johnson, CSS, and
Norman D. Kimball, ARS
Discussion leader -- Gene Lear, Ext.

January 26, forenoon

Presiding officer -- Raymond C. Riley, AMS
Summarizers -- C.L. Smith, Ext. and
Robert M. Beeman, FS
Discussion leader -- Jesse B. Hathhorn, SCS

January 26, afternoon

Presiding officer -- Ronald B. Elmes, SCS
Summarizers -- Philip Bauder, ASC, and
John V. Woodbury, CSS
Discussion leader -- Curtis Weedman, Ext.

January 27, forenoon

Presiding officer -- John H. Savage, AMS
Summarizers -- Frank Belmont, AMS, and
Bob Alexander
Discussion leader -- W.G. Nibler, Ext.

January 27, afternoon

Presiding officer -- Denver P. McComb, State Board of Forestry
Summarizers -- Theodore W. Thorson, SCS, and
Lena M. Higgins, CSS
Discussion leader -- Francis Newkirk, ASC

January 28, forenoon

Presiding officer -- Robert F. Tarrant, Forest Exp. Station
Summarizers -- Cal Monroe, Ext., and
Edgar F. Baumann, SCS
Discussion leader -- C.L. Vandebrake, CSS

January 28, afternoon

Presiding officer -- Leo M. Boire, AMS
Summarizers -- Wilbur T. Cooney, OSC, and
Henry M. Matschiner, State Dept. of Ag.
Discussion leader -- Justin G. Smith, Forest Exp. Station

January 29, forenoon

Presiding officer -- Kenneth Carl, State Dept. of Ag.
Summarizers -- Raymond C. Riley, AMS, and
Charles L. Gibb, CSS
Discussion leader -- L. A. Waggener, FS

January 29, afternoon

Presiding officer -- E.H. Marshall, FS
Summarizers -- Gene Lear, Ext., and
Ted Dunwoodie, ASC

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Science Transforms American Agriculture

Ernest G. Moore and Stella S. English. Reprint of Chapter VI of Science and the Social Studies, twenty-seventh yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1956-57. Reprinted by Agricultural Research Service, USDA, Washington, D.C., January, 1958.

So You're on a Committee - How are You Doing?

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Personnel, Misc. Publ. No. 742, August, 1957.

How to Communicate Ideas

From the book by Richard C. Borden, "Public Speaking as Listeners Like It", Copyright, 1935, Harper and Brothers. Distributed by the Economic Press, Inc., P.O. Box 460, Montclair, N.J.

New Directions in Liberal Education for Executives

By Peter E. Siegle. Center for the study of Liberal Education for Adults, 4819 Greenwood Ave., Chicago 15, Illinois, March, 1958.

Toward the Liberally Educated Executive

Edited by Robert A. Goldwin and Charles A. Nelson. The Fund for Adult Education, White Plains, New York. 1959. (New and Revised Edition)

How to Plan and Conduct Workshops and Conferences

By Richard Beckhard. Association Press, 291 Broadway, New York 7, New York, 1957.

Left to right FRONT ROW - BELMONT, ELMES, WEEDMAN, KIMBALL, MONROE, NEWKIRK, BAUDER, GIBB, SAVAGE. SECOND ROW - MCCOMB, MATSCHINER, CARL, THORSON, HIGGINS, WOODBURY, BOIRE. THIRD ROW - BOYD, BEEMAN, C. L. SMITH, WAGGENER, TARRANT, VANDEBRAKE, STORM, MARSHALL. FOURTH ROW - COONEY, NIBLER, LEAR, JOHNSON, BAUMANN, J. SMITH, DUNWOODIE, HATHORN, RILEY. FIFTH ROW - ALEXANDER, SUCHY, SCHEEL, BROWN.